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Problems in the Development of Research Men

By ROSS L. MOONEY

It is my conviction that the primary concern of the research man is the study of the nature of his own inquiry. The situation in which he is involved varies from setting to setting, but his own participation is always present. What he reports concerning phenomena are revelations of his own behavior as he becomes involved with this phenomenon and then that.

The data are not inherent in the objects in the situation, taken as separated from him, but are inherent in his experience as formed within operations involving himself and those objects. In studying rocks, for example, a scientist can report that a rock is red, is heavy, dissolves in chemical X, burns when placed in fire, and so on. The data of redness, heaviness, dissolution, and burning are perceptions within his experience, not apart from it.

Creative research workers, whether in the physical or the social sciences, appear to be sensitively aware of what is going on in their behavior, and to understand that the data are creations within experience, occurring in behaviors being formed in the context of the situation. The creative person develops the skill of watching his behaviors while being involved.

In watching self-behaviors, the creative person apparently develops more than normal capacity to clearly differentiate between participation and observation, and to simultaneously and rhythmically carry the two rôles so that each can better feed the other. He has the capacity both to give himself intensely to an experience and, at the same time, to keep an eye on the forms of his emergent behavior. After an intense participation, he can relive his experience reflectively, during which time he can give himself more intensely to observation. In

such manner, the data and deductions of creative scientists somehow appear to be born.

So it is important for the man who would become a scientist that he accept himself as involved in all he does, that he honor himself and his processes, and that he try to improve his capacities of self-observation and self-participation. He cannot be afraid of himself nor be apologetic for being involved in what he does, though the tenor of insistence on "objectivity," improperly understood, as it hovers in the atmosphere of most scientific training, tends to make him both afraid and apologetic for the intrusion of any "subjectivity." Behind this mistaken interpretation of objectivity is the assumption that truth inheres in the environment, apart from experience, and that it is to be revealed in so far as possible without the faulty touch of the imperfect human hand or mind.

However, when truth is taken as creation within human experiencing and, more particularly, as creation within the human experiencing of the specific individuals having the experience, then objectivity becomes something else, namely, the capacity for "detachment" within experience, wherein observation and participation are sufficiently detached from each other to produce clear observations. The more clean-cut the respective rôles of participation and observation, the greater the cool-headed quality of the scientist, and the more reliable his predictions. Subjectivity then becomes, not the intrusion of human imperfectibility, but the honoring of the self as the primary instrument for scientific enterprises.

The creative scientist admits the relativity of all he does, but, rather than feel cheated because of imperfectibility, he switches his base of operations, and takes constructive joy and pride in the capacity of his primary instrument, that is, himself, to create. He asserts a positive place for himself in the world, and he operates from that place as does the creative poet, musician, playwright, and reflective thinker.

Historically, when Western peoples were going forward in the conquest of the physical world, it served them well to pay attention to the environment, for, through changes there, they were able to realize freedoms and rewards which they prized. With this development came a special concentration called "science," and in that concentration were imbedded the assump-

tions that truth is in the environment apart from the experiencing of those who experience it as truth, and that science is that intellectual pursuit which reveals that truth. Prior to the period of the conquest of the environment, when society was set in the relatively unchanging and dominating structure of the pre-Renaissance, truth was placed in the heavens, again apart from the creativity of man. So we have had two long cultural periods in the evolution of Western civilization when the truth was primarily, though by no means always and everywhere, kept outside the experiencing of man as man saw it.

Now, however, our cultural evolution has brought us to a place where it is possible and inherently necessary to take truth as being created within the experiencing of man-in-environment. The evolving focus now is on the creative cultivation of the higher qualities of experience and the enrichment of the lives and operations of the experiencers.

THE sensitive scientist of today feels the force of this development, and he knows that it challenges and supports his creativity. He becomes engaged in paying honest and conscious attention to the cultivation of his own operations, and he prizes those situations which do most to teach him about himself and his forms of behaving.

To this end, he increasingly seeks out the company of other scientists who have arrived at the same level of realization, so as to share with them ways of feeling and thinking through problems. Often this sharing turns out to be richer among those who represent different scientific fields than among those who represent the same areas of interest, since the specifics of specialized subject-matter cannot be used as the context of communication, and reliance must early be placed in communication on the *forms* of inquiry. It is in terms of the forms of inquiry that the greatest illumination comes.

He also seeks ways of better understanding what he does in his own work. Having come to feel that his primary laboratory is his own behavior, he willingly and consciously undertakes experimentation with himself. He deliberately lays traps for himself so that, as he walks into them, he can learn better what it is like to behave from a new point of view and in a new way. He alerts himself to opportunities to take new rôles in his relations with people or in the performance of research

projects so as to better sense what it means to organize experence from hitherto unaccustomed positions. He takes time to do some daydreaming, and he seeks ways of putting his daydreams into a creative form wherein he is free to let himself go, under conditions where the consequences for others cannot be serious, while at the same time he can take a later cool-eyed view of his underlying feelings, implied assumptions, previously unrealized motives, inherent purposes, and so on. In such ways, he seeks to uncover hitherto unrealized forms of experience. His research, to a significant degree, is a researching over his experience to better sense its form-and-flow. In significant part, what he seeks to uncover is that of which he has hitherto been unconscious in his own behavior.

Dominant in such explorations is the spirit of play, for if he gets too serious with an hypothesis or rôle, he tends to give himself up to participation without attendant operation of detached observation. He then becomes unconsciously identified and lacks the means of differentiation required for gaining the learning about experience which he is after. As he plays, he uncovers assumptions he has been making all the time without knowing it. Distilled from his playing comes a widening range of conscious understandings which, when applied to problems of vital concern to the welfare and enrichment of himself and others, can be taken seriously as the best he knows to guide the conduct of human affairs.

By such means, the sensitive scientist seeks to develop his capacity to participate and observe, and, as this capacity develops, he becomes more able to keep a clear distinction between his participation and his observation, to keep track of where he is standing while organizing his observations, to see figure in relation to ground rather than separated from it, to be humble in relation to himself and his declarations, and to sense the generalizations of higher order which come about through increasing perception of the forming of his behavior. He comes to know that the forming of his inquiry is the source of his most meaningful generalizations, the kind that transfer best from one situation to another, and the kind which it is most worth while to try to teach to others. The best generalizations are those which most fully liberate him for grasping the form of his inquiry, and these come most readily under circumstances in which he can give attention to his forming.

IN TRAINING research workers in graduate schools and elsewhere, it seems as though the matters with which we have been dealing here are largely missed. We make the mistake too often of teaching the science and not the potential scientist. In our involvement with our own processes, we are likely to commit the students to the participations which are science for us, without showing them our relationships to our processes and without allowing them the opportunity to develop their own sensitivities to their own processes. In short, we manage to fall into the older tradition in which we put science outside experience as though it were to be "revealed out there" rather than "created in here." The important operations which have to do with the development of self-understanding and self-discipline in the regions of participation and observation are given little attention.

We need to reconstruct important phases of graduate education in order to give place to the cultivation of the potential scientist as creator of his science, his truth, his reality, his generalizations, his observations, and so on. We need to give science back to men, and to give men's minds back to men. It is the essence of our job if we are engaged in the teaching of research workers.

We can quickly simplify the fundamental quality of what we are trying to say here by pointing out that the simplest operations of learning are those in which the learner observes his behavior while giving himself to the solution of a problem. The child who is trying to do an arithmetic problem without keeping track of what he is doing while undertaking the solution will not be able to repeat the solution if he gets it or to correct his errors if he fails to get it. In short, he has not learned. The simplest learning is a creative operation if it is learning at all. In wanting scientists who can observe while they participate and who can reflect after participation, we are saying that we want learning. We need not be confused on the main issue because we have largely dealt with what is sometimes taken as the sanctity of science and the sanctoriums of creative scientists. We are dealing with something elemental, whether the problem be simple or complex.

Despite the elemental quality of what is being said here, it is not something which has come easily in my own experience. It has taken twenty years of halting, puzzling struggle to get

these elemental realizations into the open where I could deal with them overtly. During most of that period, I was divided between the apparent field of science, for what it implied as to the nature of truth and inquiry, and the apparent field of myself, for what it implied as to the nature of my own growth. The greatest help was derived from opportunities to observe the behavior of artists in the pursuit of the creative, while also keeping in view the struggling of scientists to compose their experience at the level of theory. In both cases, I turned somehow to the study of the behavior of the men involved rather than to the study of the subject-matter of art or science.

Out of this involvement came the gradual realization that men are still men, whether they be artists or scientists; that experience is still experience, whether it be in art or science; and that the penetrating questions lie in the way men take themselves while doing their work, whatever the name of their work. Science then came to be seen as primarily instrumental to the enrichment of my own growth, rather than antagonistic to it; and the old bifurcation disappeared as my attention turned more to the constructive question of how man distills his experience, and, more pointedly, of how I, as a man, distill my experience, and of how the processes by which I do so seem to coincide with or depart from the processes employed by others.

OTHER research workers may have some of the same difficulties, but there are current trends which help to overcome them. The war did something to research workers who were involved in it. At least, this seems to be true of researchers in the social sciences, where most of my contacts lie.

There appears to be an active disposition among social scientists since the war to seek each other out and to act as if they felt something of a higher order of significance could come from that association than might come from continued isolation. As indicated earlier, in such groupings there is little chance that scientists in different fields will comprehend one another's technical subject-matter, so that their basis for communication is the revelations they can make concerning the way in which their inquiries are being shaped. This brings more attention to the proposition that the shape of inquiry is important; and beneath that, not too far submerged, is the realization that inquiry is shaped by men, even though some may still be

caught with the feeling that data or facts are beyond the shapings of those who report them.

Another development is the inclination and willingness of the younger-spirited scientists to submit themselves to truly significant human problems. So long as scientists could be spared the necessity of helping to make important social decisions, they could more easily avoid the realization that science is intimately involved in values and the enhancement of human welfare. They could more readily pursue the chimerical hope that science was above or separate from human involvement. But, in submitting themselves to work on important social problems, they come more readily to see how their scientific judgments are enmeshed in the rest of their experience for decisions on major social questions, and they come to see more clearly how all of their experience together composes the field of their inquiry and the ground for their judgments.

The stark clarity of the place of science in world conditions, leading unmistakably to the conclusion that man can destroy himself if he will, puts us all in the same position and makes us realize that the maintenance and enhancement of the living of man is the crucial matter for us all. In submitting to this realization, scientists come more willingly to accept man as creator of experience-in-situations and to accept the enhancement of value qualities in experience as the goal, direction, and best explanation of man's behavior.

In its full import, this is a gigantic revolution. It has been long in coming and it will be long in its further development, provided man can manage to stay in reasonably constructive control of his destiny.

One of the involvements in the revolution is the shifting in conceptions of proof. Proof of what is true, which has been the center of concern in traditional science, is no longer enough. Proof of what is good is also involved. As a matter of fact, proof of what is good, since it is most directly related to the enhancement of human living, is in the more encompassing position.

The major propositions supporting, motivating, and guiding the total research enterprise are those expressed in terms of, and primarily oriented to, the "good." Proof of what turns out to be good through the activity of the research enterprise

is a major engagement throughout the work. Instrumental to the attainment of the good is a series of activities of which some will be more effective than others. The values represented in the major propositions are to be attained through hypotheses concerning the means of their attainment. These hypotheses concerning the "hows" are the sort which can be tackled in terms of what is true. That hypothesis is truly best which works most effectively to produce the maximum in the increased values sought. In this way, the truth is submitted to the criterion of goodness and comes within its purview.

But the pathway between the "true" and the "good" is not a one-way street. Involvement with the "hows" requires continuous re-thinking concerning the purposes, values, and "what fors," so that the scientist has a better understanding of what he takes to be good all the while he is working in the testing of what is true. The true and the good thereby come to be inseparably related in the functioning of experience, and the process of proof is a process in which these relations are constantly coming into common focus.

As things stand, so much of scientific endeavor has been divorced from what is taken to be good that, now, when we most sorely need to know how best to attain the good, we have pitifully little to use. Or, perhaps more accurately, we have been so little oriented to the pursuit of the good, and so little concerned with the scientific requirement of proving that what we are doing is effective in terms of the good, that we now have little appreciation of the value of the "hows" we do know for their functional relation to the good. The effort, now, in the face of critical social decisions, is to try to work over what we know from sporadic general experience so that we can use it. Meanwhile, we are also entering the deeper struggle of reorganizing our conception of suitable research projects and our conceptions of proof, and of finding out how to use these newer conceptions so that we can be at ease while using them.

The traditions of science, oriented otherwise in the past, make many scientists feel vaguely uneasy and lost in the new orientation. But if one can catch them in the rôle of the human being rather than in the rôle of the scientist, they will readily agree that the pursuit of the good should transcend and basically control the pursuit of the true.

A few scientists may go so far as to say that, in their present

judgment, human behavior is not likely to have a satisfactory explanation until the sciences concerning it study the human being in terms of the principle that behavior is controlled and organized in relation to a continuing pursuit of richer value fulfillment. Hadley Cantril, in his book, *The Why of Man's Experience*,[1] makes this case for psychology, and there is no reason to believe that the principle may not be equally pertinent in other fields studying man, such as physiology, history, economics, and sociology. Other involvements in the revolution have to do with the realization that scientific discipline may be the discipline that also represents best mental hygiene; that religion, functionally conceived, may be one of the richest sources for cues as to ways of generating effective scientific attitudes; and that the experiencing of artists may offer a field of study that leads relatively quickly to suggestions of better ways of distilling the forms of experience and inquiry.

We cannot engage here in discussion of these further involvements, since it is our interest, in closing, to summarize some of the meanings for the training and development of research workers for science, thus conceived.

Within the limitation of "a list of ten," we can say that we

take research workers as people;

spend a great deal of time in helping research workers clarify their personal directions and motivations for their living and for the work into which they are going;

give time to the realization of the social situation, the critical problems and the critical decisions with which society is faced, the values we culturally seek to attain for our living, and the identification of the research worker with a concrete place in that social setting for his effective participation in that struggle;

seek to display the nature of creative activity and arrange for the research worker to find a place in his living where he can experience the satisfactions which come from creation so that he may learn better how to nurture the creative in the processes of his own research work;

afford research workers a chance to dignify and respect the processes of feeling their way through problems as well as thinking their way through them, for from the freedom and conscious expression of feeling come chances to observe the forming of inquiry at a level which is likely, otherwise, to remain hidden, without access, in the unconscious behavior of the research worker;

[1] New York: Macmillan Company, 1950.

turn to the careful observation of behavior as it occurs in the artistic, the religious, and other areas which are usually dismissed as the treacherous ground of intuition, since we feel that man can learn a great deal about productive forms of inquiry from respectful attention to the complex as well as to the simple and traditionally acceptable;

cultivate the spirit of play, humor, and personal enjoyment in what is done so that the research worker can learn to lay traps for himself with security, can try out different rôles to see what occurs in his experience, can advance hypotheses to test how things might work out from different points of view and different channels of engagement, and so on, under conditions where he can remain "cool-eyed" and productively observant of his experience;

work together to try better to comprehend the difference it makes in the forms of inquiry to submit one's findings to the proof of what is good as well as, and in relation to, the proof of what is true;

share with present and potential scientists in a number of different fields, seeking to learn the forms of their inquiry;

work on the "hows," the techniques and the methods, as instrumental to what we do rather than as the ends for which we live, which is to make the "hows" not less important, but inherent in the attainment of the "what fors," and, therefore, of inevitable importance in the context.

The principles here presented suggest several changes in graduate education.

For what is written here I cannot claim social validity apart from the like experiencing and like judging of others. This has been a statement to present what I see so that, perhaps, a sharing with others having like concerns will be more readily possible. The invitation to share is, to my way of thinking, the chief function of publication.

In closing, some connection with educational research is perhaps called for, since this magazine is in that field. Educational research, as I see it, is to deal with ways of improving teaching for the further and better development of men. The fact that we turn our attention here on ourselves and on those men who are to be engaged in like pursuits in educational research does not mean that we are off the subject. Rather, it puts us as close to the heart of the matter as I, thus far, know how to get.

A List of Common Words for First Grade

By JOSEPHINE H. MACLATCHY AND FRANCES R. WARDWELL

A LITTLE less than three years ago, in a series of two articles in this magazine the writers reported a vocabulary study based upon the texts of 42 preprimers. We said at that time that we planned to make similar studies of the words used in primers and first readers. In the second of the two articles we listed the 42 preprimers in order of difficulty based on two criteria in their relation to the number of words in a book—the words which had been used in books which appeared earlier in the series and the number of new words.[1] This rule-of-thumb method of rating was usable in arranging preprimers in an order of vocabulary difficulty. When we attempted to use it in ranking primers and first readers, however, the ways of determining the measure of familiarity presented too many problems.

We outlined the data we could assemble and the type of solution we wished, and we gave our problem to the Statistics Laboratory, Ohio State University. We wanted to rate each word by its use. The measure we proposed was the number of preprimers, primers, and first readers in which a word appears. This measure they accepted. Finally, we wished to rate the difficulty of the books used in first grade by the actual words used in each of them. Mr. Whitney and Mrs. Lydia Kinzer of the Statistics Laboratory devised for us a workable formula. By using this formula the writers have arranged the preprimers, primers, and first readers examined in a series of ascending difficulty.[2]

In this study we have attempted to include the basic reading series commonly in use throughout the country. We have included series published during the thirties and forties in the hope that the first-grade teachers could use all the books available in their school libraries and storerooms. We have included revisions of several series that have had successive editions. Unfortunately for the present completeness of our study,

[1] "Common Preprimer Words" and "Preprimers Arranged in a Serial Order," XXVII (November and December 10, 1948), pp. 199–206 and 227–37.

[2] The writers will be glad to send upon request a copy of the list of preprimers, primers, and first readers.

several textbook publishers are revising their reading books this year. We decided to use our list of words compiled by December, 1950, as the basic list. The revised books or new books which we have had time to check since July have so far introduced no new words. We shall continue the word count of these books as they appear, and later in the year we shall extend our present list of 99 books to include these revised and new books.

At present we are working on a monograph which will contain the detailed report of what we have found out about the 1,459 words used in first-grade books. We have computed an index of use for each word. These indexes in our I.B.M. listing are carried to 5 decimal places. We shall not trouble the readers of the monograph with such intensive details, but we shall report indexes not only for the word used in only one book but also for the single word found in 98 books and for all the words between them.[3]

This study has been done on a very limited budget. It has, however, received large contributions through good will. An expert operator sorted the 1,459 cards in many different ways on the I.B.M. machine and printed records which are many columns wide and many feet in length. Mr. Whitney and Mrs. Kinzer contributed the formula. Although a number of interesting facts are disclosed in ranking the 99 first-grade books and in analyzing their vocabularies, only the proportion of overlapping within the vocabularies will be discussed here.

THE scheme of the study is as follows. Each book is read carefully and every word is listed. Then the context of the book is checked against this list to be sure all the words are included. No effort is made in this study to determine the number of times a word is used in a book. The authors of reading books are familiar with the importance of repetition to learning, and each of them tells how he has met the problem in the construction of his book. We do record the various inflections of a word and its use as different parts of speech. We have not included proper names. Each word is designated by the type of book in which it first appears; for example, a word introduced in a primer is called a "primer word."

[3] The monograph will be published by the Bureau of Educational Research, Ohio State University, during this fall or winter.

We have used 54 preprimers, 28 primers, and 29 first readers of 25 basic reading series. We find 321 different words in use in the preprimers, 505 new words appear in the primers, and 633 words are introduced in the first readers. These figures add to a total of 1,459 words.

Among the words introduced in each type of book there is a small proportion of overlapping. Twenty-five preprimer words are used in more than half of the preprimers. Only 4 words introduced in primers (*so*, *them*, *again*, and *have*) are used in 50 per cent of them, and more than half of the 505 words (276) are used in only one primer. However, all but 36 of the words introduced in primers are found in at least one first reader. No words introduced in first readers are used by half of them. *Spring*, the most commonly used word among those which are introduced in first readers, is used in 14 books. Although 633 words are introduced in first readers, 376 of them are found in only one first reader.

We have found that the words introduced in the preprimers are those most commonly used in the first-grade books. Although 115 of these words are used in a single preprimer each, they appear again in at least one primer or first reader, so that but one word, *page*, is used only in the preprimer which introduces it. All the words which are extensively used in first-grade books are introduced in the preprimers. In fact, 150 preprimer words are used in more than 70 per cent of the first readers.

This small list comprises the most extensive overlapping found in the entire list. However, if the practice in first readers of using the majority of the primer words is repeated in writing second readers, these infrequently used first-reader words will appear in several second readers. The practice of book writers seems to be to use some words more frequently in books of the next higher level than they do in the books on the level at which the words are introduced.

IN LINE with the practice of textbook making, the 150 words used most commonly in first-grade books are introduced in the preprimers. These 150 words are given in List I. They are grouped according to percentages from 100 per cent (all) of the primers and of the first readers to the group which is used in more than 70 per cent of the first readers.

LIST I

A List of Basic Words for First Grade

All Primers and All First Readers	All First Readers		More than 70 Per Cent of the Primers and of the First Readers		More than 70 Per Cent of the First Readers and Less than 70 Per Cent of the Primers	
mother	day	put	boy	white	animal	next
he*	house	ran	dog	call	apple	old
I	his	saw	father	find	baby	some
it	she	was	fun	help	bed	three
me	they	went	girl	laugh	bird	yellow
my*	we	will	home	like	box	be
you	what	away	something	may	door	could
can	your	now	him	play	farm	eat
do*	big	out	this	ride	man	give
go	one	then	us	run	morning	got
have*	am	there	all	thank	night	has
is	are	up	blue	want	rabbit	know
look	came	where	good	down	sleep	let
said	come	yes	happy	here	store	made
see	did	into	little	too	story	must
not	get	of	no	oh	surprise	please
and	had	over	red	goodby	time	stop
at*	jump	but	two		tree	take
for	make				water	took
in					way	walk
on*					her	work
to					our	back
with					that	fast
a					who	after
the					brown	from
					funny	under
					green	

* These words are used in fewer than half of the preprimers.

The words in the first group, except those marked by asterisks, are found in more than half of the preprimers as well as in all the primers and first readers. There are six words used in more than half of the preprimers which are not included in the first group because they are not used in all primers and all first readers. These words are: *come*, *play*, *here*, *father*, *little*, and *big*. They all appear in one of the other groups in the list. The six words that are marked by asterisks are used by fewer than half of the preprimers. The words in the first group which are used by more than half the preprimers may well be given special emphasis by the first-grade teacher while her pupils are reading preprimers. Since these words are found in all primers, they will, if mastered, serve the children as a core of familiarity when reading primers.

There are 37 words in the second group which, with the 25 words in the first group, make 62 words which are found in all first readers and all or more than 70 per cent of the primers, with the exception of *over*, which is used in one preprimer, eleven primers, and all first readers. There are 35 words in the third group which are used by less than 100 but more than 70 per cent of the primers and first readers. The first three groups total 95 words. Because they are commonly used in the primers, they may well be marked for special attention while the children are reading primers.

The fourth group of 53 words should be given special attention while the children are reading first readers, because they are found in the majority of them. In proportion as the child masters the words in this list he will have a core of familiar words which he will find in all or most of the books he reads. In corresponding proportion he will develop self-confidence and a feeling of security in regard to his reading.

The words in List I are not arranged alphabetically within each group but are arranged by parts of speech. The first group comprises one noun, 6 pronouns, 8 verbs, one adverb, one conjunction, 6 prepositions, and two articles. The numbers of nouns, verbs, and other parts of speech found in each group are given in Table I. The verbs are most numerous. Nouns are few except in the last group. Most of these words are commonly used in all books, particularly the prepositions, conjunctions, pronouns, and auxiliary verbs. These are important words to know because they establish important relationships

and convey details of meaning which facilitate comprehension.

This list has been checked against Mr. Dolch's "Basic Sight Vocabulary of 220 Words."[4] There are 116 of these first-grade words in the Dolch list. Mr. Dolch does not include many nouns. None of the 30 nouns in this list appears in Mr. Dolch's list; nor does he include *next, happy, oh,* and *goodby*. This list of representative first-grade words, then, includes many words which will always be useful to the child who masters them. Interestingly enough, all but three words in Mr. Dolch's list are among the 1,459 words introduced in first-grade books.

TABLE I

THE WORDS OF THE LIST CLASSIFIED BY PARTS OF SPEECH

Parts of Speech	First Group	Second Group	Third Group	Fourth Group	Total
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Noun	1	2	7	20	30
Pronoun	6	6	3	4	19
Adjective	2	2	9	8	21
Verb	8	15	11	16	50
Adverb	1	8	3	2	14
Conjunction	1	1	.....	.....	2
Preposition	6	3	.....	3	12
Interjection	.....	.....	2	.....	2
Total words	25	37	35	53	150

THE proportion of these commonly used words in the vocabulary of a given book affects its rating of difficulty. This fact can be simply shown in the analysis, given in Table I, of the vocabulary of *Ride Away*, the preprimer presenting the fewest words. An index of use is reckoned for each word by determining the number of preprimers, primers, and first readers in which it is used. From these are computed indexes of use for the word in each of the three classes of books. These indexes in turn are added together and give the index of use for the word. When these figures are used in the formula devised by Mr. Whitney and Mrs. Kinzer *Ride Away* has an index of vocabulary use of .268, which places it first in the series of 99 first-grade books. The indexes in the table show that in the vocabulary of this book the words selected are quite commonly used in preprimers (*see* Column 2), more frequently used in primers (*see* Column 3), and still more

[4] *Elementary School Journal*, XXXVI (February, 1936), pp. 458–59.

frequently used in first readers (*see* Column 4). There are 13 preprimers with vocabularies ranging from 9 to 29 words. Most of them are the first in the series of two, three, or four preprimers prepared by textbook publishers as the beginning of their basic reading series. The percentages of the words from List I used in these preprimers have been computed. All the words in the book which is first among the 54 preprimers in order of difficulty are found in List I, while only 75 per cent of the words used in the book which is twelfth in the series appear there.

TABLE II

THE INDEXES OF USE OF THE NINE WORDS USED IN "RIDE AWAY"

WORDS IN RIDE AWAY	INDEXES OF USE			INDEX OF USE
	In Preprimers	In Primers	In First Readers	
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
and	.98	1.00	1.00	2.981
away	.39	.89	1.00	2.281
come	.87	.96	1.00	2.834
go	.89	1.00	1.00	2.889
here	.74	.93	.97	2.635
in	.56	1.00	1.00	2.556
out	.17	.93	1.00	2.095
ride	.44	.68	.86	1.985
stop	.24	.36	.86	1.460

THE reader is not to conclude that inclusion of these 150 words is the best standard by which to appraise a first-grade book. It is only one of several measures. However, by the criterion used here, books that use a large proportion of words not often found in other books of comparable type are judged hard books at that level. Also, teachers will do well not to try to have the children master all the words in a book before going on to another one that is slightly harder. It is a good plan when reading a book using the words found in few books or in one to let the children learn the words only well enough to read them in that book. If they do not meet these words again soon they will likely forget them anyway. To keep alive the joy of reading it is well to remember that the child will have many other opportunities in other books and in other grades to learn these words.

The reader is not to conclude that these 150 words constitute the most important vocabulary for first-grade pupils. The

authors do not believe themselves competent to form such a judgment. We do know, however, that in the 99 first-grade books which we have examined in detail these are the words most commonly used and therefore important to learn. Since that is true, so long as these books are in common use these are most useful words for a first-grade child to master. He is sure to meet 62 of them in his primers and first readers.

Many of the words in List I are not easily learned because they express relationships or abstract ideas—language usage which, although the child employs it adequately in his own conversation, seems hard for him to infer in his reading. Perhaps the very length of some of the words causes them to be overlooked: a frequent comment made about poor readers is that they do not read the "little words." The similarities in form which occur among such words as *in* and *on*, *here* and *there*, *there* and *where*, add to the difficulty of learning them.

Many such words in the list, if not known, can only be inferred by a very careful use of context, that is, by a reader who has comprehended the story as far as he has gone. If *her* is used in the story instead of repeating Alice, Molly, or Jane, the child must know the proper name for which the pronoun stands. This implies that he had better know that in his own conversation he uses certain words to refer to girls or boys of his acquaintance rather than repeat their names as two-year-olds are likely to do. This means that though he will not know the word *pronoun*, he will have a working familiarity with the use of this part of speech in pleasant writing.

The reader also is urged not to infer that the writers believe that these are all the words the child will learn in his first-grade reading. Fortunately, there is no limit set to the size of a child's vocabulary. He may learn as many words as he can or is willing to. Nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs are likely to have their own appeal. They stand for things with which he is familiar, they tell of action he himself can perform, they describe things by telling their size or color, they tell when, how, where some act is performed. These four groups of words lend themselves readily to pictured meaning or to meanings which the child himself can dramatize. If the child is progressing at his own rate in contexts which are not too difficult for him, he will rapidly build up his own store of these words.

The articles, conjunctions, and prepositions will be added to his vocabulary as the context of what he reads is carefully interpreted. The mastery of these words will be an index of the proficiency of his interpretation and the correctness of his reading.

THE writers believe that the best way to learn to read is by reading. The best place to meet these 150 words and any other words introduced in first-grade books is in a context not too difficult for the facile comprehension of the reader. This means that while the children who learn to read with little difficulty need read only one or two of the preprimers with vocabularies of less than 30 words, the slower readers may need to read three, four, or more of these easiest books. The children who learn to read easily should soon be given preprimers with larger vocabularies—those with from 40 to 59 words; finally, those with 60 to 77 words. Their reading experience should present difficulties which demand of them effort comparable to the effort which the children encounter who find reading difficult to master. For example, the later editions of several preprimers are somewhat easier than the earlier editions. The writers suggest that the best readers read the earlier edition, while the groups of slower readers read the easier, later edition. The children who find reading hard to master should reach the more difficult books by reading many books spaced at easy intervals. They may take longer than the first grade to do this for the quality of their reading achievement should not be sacrificed to grading routines.

The writers are committed to a belief in the value of reading many books spaced for difficulty within the easy mastery of the reader. Also, they firmly believe that as early in the year as possible each child should always read new stories, simulating in his reading the reading of the adult who reads for pleasure or to obtain information and only re-reads a selection from choice. If his reading can proceed to this stage and then advance by easy increments, his confidence in himself will be increased and his feeling of security will be strengthened. One facet of security is knowing that one is able to do well what all children want to do—in this instance, be able to read.

EDITORIAL COMMENT

The Best Defense Is Not Offense

THE present widespread attacks on the programs and policies of the public schools constitute one of the gravest challenges that friends of public education have ever faced. The attacks are nation-wide in scope: the Pasadena case was only the most conspicuous among scores of examples. Some of the attacks are led by national organizations, others are local in origin. Some of the attackers undoubtedly are self-seeking foes of public education and American liberties, hiding their motives under a cloak of democratic respectability. Others are sincere and patriotic, but misguided, citizens who have a nostalgic yearning for the good old days of the three R's and the little red schoolhouse.

How to meet these attacks successfully is the most urgent problem confronting those who stand for the continued progress of education. Each situation, of course, is unique and must be dealt with in ways that are appropriate to it. There are, however, certain principles and policies that are essential to any sound defense of the schools.

First, we should avoid any implication that the schools are perfect or that no mistakes have been made in the past. It would be strange indeed if, in all the educational experimentation and change that have taken place during the past three decades, there had not been excesses and follies. Even under the wisest and best educational leadership, there will be many mistakes. Any administrator or teacher who is worth his salt knows plenty of ways in which the program could be improved. Indeed, the very concept of perfection in school work is fallacious. The school must constantly change in the light of new conditions, new needs, and new knowledge.

Second, we must avoid name-calling and the use of smear techniques. It is true that some of the more vociferous attacks on the schools are based on ulterior and undemocratic motives. But it is also true that attacking the motives of one's opponents is usually bad tactics. It is just as bad for friends of democracy and progress to use the word "Fascist" as a smear word, as it is

for those on the other side to use the term "Communist." If a clear-cut documented case can be found where an opponent is allied with reactionary social groups or has been engaged in hate mongering, it is proper to point out this fact. But this is quite different from the indiscriminate use of smear words or attacks on motives. Every effort should be made to keep the discussion on a rational rather than an emotional basis.

So much for things that should be avoided. Positively, we should, in the first place, meet more than halfway, proposals to investigate what the schools are doing. While investigations are time-consuming and often annoying, they should be not only tolerated, but welcomed as a part of the democratic process. We must, of course, insist that the investigators play fair and bring to light all of the relevant facts. If this is done, investigations can generally serve a useful purpose.

Second and most important of all, we should seek the co-operation of the critics in joint efforts for the improvement of the school program. To illustrate, let us take a hypothetical school situation. This school, let us say, is in a well-to-do suburban community. It has a rather progressive program and at the same time it keeps a careful eye on college-entrance requirements, since nearly all of the students expect to attend college. A local group of citizens has attacked the program on grounds that too much attention is given to extra-curricular activities and to "socialization," to the neglect of more important things. The group demands increased emphasis on the old-fashioned virtues of discipline and respect for authority, and much better mastery of the fundamentals.

How can such a situation best be met? Not by insisting that the schools are above critcism, not by attacking the motives or associations of the critics, and not by organizing another group who would carry on a counterattack and perhaps win a "victory." The board of education and the school should invite the leaders of the opposition to a conference. At this conference, the two groups should seek, first of all, to understand each other's position. It should be easy to find large areas of agreement. No doubt all would agree, for example, that the graduates of the high school ought to be prepared to enter the colleges of their choice and ought also to be prepared to be intelligent voters. Once the areas of agreement are defined, the areas of disagreement should be similarly defined.

[*Continued on page 168*]

READINGS

Books to Read

ROBINSON, FRANCIS P. *Principles and Procedures in Student Counseling.* New York: Harper and Brothers, 1950. xii+321 pp.

This book is "primarily concerned with helping personnel workers who wish to develop professional skill in counseling with normal individuals" (page ix). Its conclusions are "fundamentally based on research data obtained from studies of secondary school and college students" (page ix). In addition to his summarization of other research, the writer sought to present the findings of an extensive research program carried on under his direction at Ohio State University. The book quite successfully maintains the delicate balance between a detailed study of significant research and an analysis of the key problems and solutions (or alternative solutions) as these might be presented by an expert to learners in the field. Other experts will be much interested in the report on research (given mainly in Part II); for the rest, the book will be most useful to students whose field of training is counseling, and to practicing counselors who are willing to look at their techniques objectively.

The book moves dialectically in dealing with its over-all problem, "Which counseling techniques are most effective?" from the initial (and least adequately treated) topic, "What are the ends which counseling hopes to attain?" (treated in Part I) to the answers research has thus far given the question, "Which counseling procedures seem the best means to achieve these ends?" (treated in Part II); to an almost purely descriptive discussion of different types of interviews classified by type of problem: non-emotional adjustment problems; emotional adjustment problems; readily recognizable skill problems; and, finally, problems labeled "higher-level adjustment skills," about which I shall say more presently. Part IV consists of a single chapter on some related aspects of counseling programs and is outside of the dialectical movement of the book, as I see it, though it contains a useful discussion of non-interview devices (Robinson calls them "group and environmental approaches") which will contribute to the ends of a counseling program.

I have already implied that in this excellent book, Part I is least adequately done. This is due to an inadequate analysis of the aims of counseling. Part I—to overstate my point—is almost superfluous for a reader who is "ready" for Parts II and III, and will not, in my opinion, make the "unready" reader ready for them.

Robinson's attitude toward research is a common one: we cannot really *know* until research has given us the answers. Yet the most vital factors in counseling are non-quantitative and therefore susceptible to measurement only in a limited sense. It is even possible that the ultimate goals can never be adequately communicated or that the most "effective" means can never be adequately described; if this is the truth, we must not behave as though it were not—unpleasant a truth though it may be. In the light of such doubts, it is not surprising that I find Robinson most useful in his discussion of

counseling problems dealing with (to use his categories) non-emotional adjustment problems and problems that are easily isolatable as skill problems. Yet, without overemphasizing these aspects, he castigates (I believe with justice) those who would limit the counseling job to problems of emotional adjustment.

For Robinson conceives of counseling in terms so broad that at times the distinction between teaching and counseling disappears. Thus Robinson can say: "Counseling must help the client discover a more complete and accurate appraisal of himself and the world" or "develop insight into one's own and the world's characteristics" (page 246). Since such a purpose is usually conceived as the aim of a total general education, Robinson might be criticized for assigning to counseling the large task which belongs to every teacher not engaged in vocational education. But in context his view makes sense. Mark Hopkins at one end of the log is not teacher alone but counselor as well!

It is within this context that the most provocative (but probably least well-reasoned) chapter of the book is to be understood—Chapter X, "Higher-Level Skills of Adjustment," in which are discussed such "skills" (his word here is unfortunate) as "social-emotional maturity," response in terms of an "overarching value system," objectivity, and so on. This chapter is purely exploratory and its suggestions tentative, and for this reason it may be forgiven its obvious weaknesses. Its success in stimulating thought more than compensates for its—the right phrase is hard to find and this one is bad—curious naïveté.

JOSEPH AXELROD
San Francisco State College

FRIZZLE, ARNOLD LUTHER. *A Study of Some of the Influences of Regents Requirements and Examinations in French.* New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1950. ix+154 pp. (Teachers College, Columbia University, Contributions to Education, No. 964).

The Board of Regents of the University of the State of New York was established in 1784. It created a complete curriculum for secondary schools in 1878, and among the examinations scheduled for the year 1878–79 were elementary and advanced French, designed to "insure a worthy and definite degree of training and scholarship in the schools and to standardize . . . ."

Until 1914, examinations, including those of the College Entrance Examination Board, were mainly translation of French into English, formal knowledge of verbs, and translation of isolated English sentences into French. The author hopes that his study of a closely supervised and inspected system of state syllabuses, visitation and inspection of schools, and uniform state year-end examinations will be useful to other states where controls are less rigid. His book compares the trends in the teaching of modern languages in the United States with trends in New York State. He appraises the aims, methods, and content of the state syllabus in French. He analyzes the annual June examinations in "French two years" and "French three years" between 1919 and 1948. He has studied the validity and reliability of the examinations, their use for purposes of graduation from secondary schools, and the judgments of teachers of French and of school superintendents on the influences the examinations have had on course work and standards of achievement.

Frizzle finds that practically all state schools which offer French (and that is 70 per cent of the secondary schools in New York) use the Regents

Examinations. Although the Department of Modern Languages has advised against using them as criteria for graduation, the majority of the schools still use them this way because of a general demand for state credentials. Frizzle concludes: "Regents examinations have shown themselves to be fairly reliable predictors of college language success and are widely accepted by eastern colleges as satisfactory requirements for entrance to the freshman year" (page 49).

The book makes interesting reading in parts to the student of modern-language methodology. The author has naturally been influenced by the points of view of New York educators, but he has reported fairly the divergent opinions and avoids bias in his evaluations. His facts are amply documented and the book contains little error.

It is hoped that this study will stimulate other inquiries and research into examination systems and tests in general. The results should improve instruction and operate favorably on the place of the subject in the school curriculum.

JAMES B. THARP

XIIIth International Conference on Public Education Convened by Unesco and the International Bureau of Education at Geneva, July 6–14, 1950. Joint Publications of UNESCO, Paris, and the INTERNATIONAL BUREAU OF EDUCATION, Geneva.

No. 121 *Introduction to Mathematics in Primary Schools.* 247 pp.

No. 123 *The Teaching of Handicrafts in Secondary Schools.* 142 pp.

No. 127 *XIIIth International Conference on Public Education.* 148 pp.

No. 127 is a record of the proceedings and recommendations of the conference, with forty-two countries represented, including the United States and a few Russian satellites, but not the U.S.S.R. The agenda included reports on administration, school organization, curriculums, methods, teaching staff, auxiliary and out-of-school services in each country, introduction to mathematics in primary schools, the teaching of handicrafts in secondary schools, and international exchange of teachers. The volume reviewed here and the *International Yearbook of Education 1950* comprise complete documentation of the Conference. The approved texts of special reports on conference agenda and of two recommendations are given.

Nos. 121 and 123 should be of interest to American specialists in elementary and secondary education, mathematics, and education for work. American views on the two subjects are conspicuous by their absence. The traditional Western European views seem to color the reports rather than the pragmatic, experimental, and functional concepts which tend to prevail in the United States.

No. 121 discusses the place of mathematics in primary schools, curriculums, aims, methods, textbooks, and recent modifications in forty-six countries. It is interesting to note that some countries begin mathematics in nursery and infant schools and others include some geometry in primary mathematics. The list of aims (page 15) seems to indicate that most countries esteem general education and formal training somewhat more than utility in mathematics at the primary level.

No. 123 discusses the place of handicrafts in secondary schools, aims, curriculums, methods, organization and equipment of the workroom, teaching staff, and recent modifications in forty-one countries. Handicrafts have

been made compulsory in secondary education in many countries. It should be remembered that primary education is extended to all children but secondary education in most countries still tends to follow class lines. The aim is to give a broader education and preparation for the university to potential leaders; an increasing national aim includes industrialization, a better use of the country's natural resources, and, as an aid in these directions, the orientation of students toward industrial and technical leadership rather than the traditional humanistic or professional careers. In a few countries secondary education is more available for all children; here the confusion appears as to whether handicrafts should be used for general education and enlisting the interests of "handminded" children or for a narrow and specific education for work.

CLARKE L. FOSTER

WILLIAMS, J. GRENFELL. *Radio in Fundamental Education in Undeveloped Areas.* New York: Columbia University Press, 1950. 152 pp. (Unesco Press, Film and Radio Publications, No. 600).

"My brother have bought a new model radio wireless. I and my brother have learnt a great deal of things that we never knew before during our poor life—through it" (page 11). This letter from an African listener tells what radio means to the illiterate masses in the world's undeveloped areas. Mr. Williams believes that the biggest radio problem of the United Nations is putting radio to work for fundamental education in the undeveloped regions.

This survey of sixteen tropical and subtropical regions indicates that teaching reading, writing, and calculating by radio requires an intermediary, a teacher, between the program and the student. We are told how this works in several areas.

But the brightest successes come when the broadcasts add "some richness, some new experience to the life of a people living often in distress and squalor, often in hard conflict with nature" (page 87). The author describes how radio is teaching these people vocational and domestic skills, and skills in self-expression through arts and crafts; how it is providing knowledge and understanding of the natural and human environment, of ethics, and of other parts of the world; how it is helping free these people from fear and superstition.

Mr. Williams outlines a program of what can be done by the people themselves, by existing radio organizations, by government, and by international co-operation.

HUBERT MOREHEAD

O'BRIEN, MAE. *Children's Reactions to Radio Adaptations of Juvenile Books.* New York: King's Crown Press, 1950. xii+146 pp.

This study was designed "to investigate means through which children's individual ratings of juvenile broadcasts could be obtained and made more directly available to producers of juvenile radio, and to provide children with the experience of evaluating programs produced for their listening" (page 131). The author based her investigation on data gathered over a period of five years during which time successive groups of fifth- and sixth-grade children listened regularly to and evaluated the C.B.S. series, Tales from Near and Far.

Findings indicate that ten-year-olds are capable of rating programs with

remarkable discrimination and of offering valid and discerning criticisms of scripts and productions. The characteristics affecting children's appraisals revealed through their ratings are as applicable to televised or recorded programs as to radio. These characteristics will be of interest, therefore, to all persons concerned with the production of juvenile programs.

The techniques and procedures utilized in this study provide excellent suggestions for others interested in carrying on pupil-rating projects. The author suggests the desirability of similar ratings conducted on a broad scale, enlisting the co-operative efforts of educators, producers, and pupils. She believes that such co-operative efforts could bring about the production of superior juvenile programs in all fields—radio, television, and records.

CATHARINE WILLIAMS

CROW, LESTER D., AND CROW, ALICE. *An Introduction to Guidance.* New York: American Book Company, 1951. xii+430 pp.

This comprehensive, well-written, introductory book on guidance is designed to be a first "for anyone interested in helping others." The book is organized into three sections. Part I is an overview of guidance, with special emphasis on problems of individual adjustment; Part II, "The Guidance Program," attempts to develop in the reader an understanding of guidance techniques and their values in specific situations; Part III emphasizes guidance services as a continuous process, with programs geared to each phase of an individual's school and community life. Each chapter contains discussion problems designed to assist the reader to understand guidance functions. A useful chapter on appraisal and evaluation of guidance and numerous illustrations and references complete the book. This book should be helpful not only to the adult interested in understanding the scope of the guidance field but also as a refresher for the experienced career guidance worker who has continued training for his job.

MARY J. DRUCKER
Assistant State Supervisor
Guidance Services

Joint Publications of UNESCO, Paris, and the INTERNATIONAL BUREAU OF EDUCATION, Geneva, 1950.

No. 117 *Primary Teacher Training.* 253 pp.

No. 125 *International Conferences on Public Education: Collected Recommendations 1934–1950.* 90 pp.

No. 117 summarizes reports by fifty nations, including the United States and some Russian satellites, but not the U.S.S.R. Twenty-one, most of them small undeveloped nations, are still at the historic "normal school" level in training primary teachers; the rest employ higher studies in teachers' colleges, college departments of education, or university colleges of education.

Rousseau, Pestalozzi, Froebel, and Dewey have come into their own on a global scale. Among the world-wide trends noted are: few sex distinctions in training; an effort to give equivalent training to urban and rural teachers (perhaps reflecting the spread of nationalism, democracy, and industrialism from the West to remote sections of the world); some differentiation in training for work at different primary levels; selection of candidates on the basis of special aptitudes, good health, and freedom from physical defects; inclusion

in the curriculum of general, professional, and technical and art subjects (handicrafts, agriculture, music, drawing, child care); recognition of the importance of social and work experience; an increase in the amount of practice teaching; and the general adoption of a probationary period. But a phenomenal increase in the primary-school population everywhere requires some temporary sacrifice of these recognized advanced principles.

The report from the United States (pages 242–44) suggests uniformity is increasing here as a result of pressures from professional organizations, wide dissemination of scientific knowledge about primary education, and increasingly uniform standards of certification by state departments of education.

No. 125 is a collection of twenty recommendations adopted before the Second World War and eleven since then. The later ones demonstrate the influence of Unesco in their emphasis on education for international understanding and the spread of experimental and functional concepts. The earlier ones, although quite modern in other respects, tend to reflect the traditional concepts of classical humanism and formal training, particularly in the recommendations on the teaching of classical languages (pages 38–40) and modern languages (pages 30–32). But the provincial Western European view of education has patently given some ground to a more global view. This is a significant gain if one believes that "*supra omnes nationes est humanitas.*"

CLARKE L. FOSTER

FARNSWORTH, PAUL RANDOLPH. *Musical Taste: Its Measurement and Cultural Nature.* Stanford, California: Stanford University Press, 1950. 94 pp. (Education-Psychology Series, Vol. II, No. 1).

There is much confusion in the minds of musicians, music educators, and psychologists in regard to musical taste, whether one is "low" or "high" brow. Mr. Farnsworth persuades us through scientific and statistical approaches that taste is not a matter of whim but follows a type of law. Such studies as this are needed to guide us in the choice of music for classrooms and for the concert stage wherever the layman or the musically élite are considered. This book gives the reader a sane outlook concerning our musical future as well as an evaluation of our musical heritage.

JOSEPH A. LEEDER

MICHIGAN STATE COLLEGE BOARD OF EXAMINERS, PAUL L. DRESSEL, CHAIRMAN. *Comprehensive Examinations in a Program of General Education.* East Lansing, Michigan: Michigan State College Press, 1950. ix+165 pp.

In the preface Mr. Dressel states that "by deliberate intent, this book attempts to steer a middle path between a scholarly dissertation and a popular presentation. We are concerned solely with recording the developmental stages of our examination program [from 1944] up to September, 1947. It is *our* story of *our* experiences" (page v).

The authors have told their stories with frankness; they have stated their basic philosophy, their problems, their solutions, their strong and weak points, their successes and shortcomings. If the reader makes due allowances for an understandable and pardonable enthusiasm of the authors for their work, he is impressed by their desire to give both sides of controversial issues. In Chapter II, Mr. Dressel says, "The effect of discounting instructors' grades should not be lightly taken. As shown in a later chapter [Chap. XI, "Reac-

tions to the Program"] which reports a survey of staff and student attitudes, it is evident that there are some definite feelings on this matter" (page 18).

Four chapters deal with the over-all aspects of the general-education program and its comprehensive examinations. Seven chapters, each written by a specialist in the field, are devoted to the seven basic areas (Effective Living, Biological Science, Physical Science, Social Science, History of Civilization, Literature and Fine Arts, and Written and Spoken English). Thus the reader may, in accordance with his individual interests, concern himself with program-wide experiences, area experiences, or any combination thereof, and do so without loss of continuity and with a minimum of duplication.

I am glad that the folks at Michigan State have put their story in writing. We shall all profit by having ready access to their experience.

JOHN V. MCQUITTY
University of Florida

* * *

The Best Defense Is Not Offense

[*Continued from page 161*]

Following this, a study of the school program by a committee representing the board of education, the teaching staff, and lay citizens might well be undertaken. Particular care should be taken to see that the critics are well represented on the committee. After the committee has made its study, it should formulate a report with recommendations. This report should be circulated widely in the community and discussed freely by the Parent-Teacher Association, civic organizations, and other groups. Every effort should be made to keep the investigation and the discussion on the high plane of joint concern and joint effort for the development of the best possible school program, rather than on the plane of an attempted victory by one side over the other.

It is difficult to see how a program of investigation and discussion conducted in this spirit could fail to bring about substantial improvement in the situation. It might well be that the school program would be less "advanced" and "progressive" than it had been before, but it would be much better rooted in community understanding and support and thus in a better position for future progress.

In military affairs, it is no doubt true that the best defense is offense. In educational matters, it is usually true that the best defense against organized attack is co-operation with the attackers in the development of an improved program.

R. H.E.